

Between Profit and Protection: A Comparative Study of the Legal Status of Kidsfluencers

Jovana Rajić Čalić

PhD, Research Associate, Institute of Comparative Law in Belgrade; correspondence address: Terazije 41, Belgrade 11000, Serbia; e-mail: j.rajic@live.com

 <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-4658-3451>

Abstract: We live in a digital era in which young people navigate technology and social media with ease. One growing trend is the rise of kidsfluencers – children aged between 6 and 16 who create content on platforms such as YouTube, TikTok, and Instagram. Their posts often focus on video games, fashion, or lifestyle, and once they have gained a sufficient following, they begin to advertise products and secure sponsorships, which can generate significant profit. This phenomenon raises several concerns. The first is child labor: producing content may consume time that should be devoted to school and leisure. The second is the question of earnings – how much kidsfluencers make and who controls that income. Finally, privacy is a major challenge, particularly in the context of sharenting, whereby parents share photos or videos of their children online. This paper focuses primarily on the relationship between kidsfluencing and child labor, while also examining other aspects of the phenomenon of kidsfluencers. The author argues that children in the influencer world are not adequately protected, that their earnings may be mismanaged, and that existing privacy safeguards, such as the “right to be forgotten,” are insufficient.

Keywords: child labor, social media, influencers, YouTube, privacy

1. Introduction

We live in the digital era, which is why young people have little difficulty in using technology and social media. Today’s young people are born into a technological world, have access to far more information than earlier generations, and are thoroughly accustomed to communicating largely through the internet.¹ It is now unremarkable for children to be given a mobile phone to watch YouTube videos in order to keep them quiet or to stop them from becoming bored. Once children become accustomed to such devices at an early age, it is unsurprising that these devices continue to be used for leisure later in life.

Research conducted by UNICEF shows that over 96% of children aged between 6 and 9 use the internet daily,² and this figure is likewise high among children in Serbia, who

¹ Simone van der Hof et al., “The Child’s Right to Protection against Economic Exploitation in the Digital World,” *The International Journal of Children’s Rights* 28, no. 4 (2020): 833–59, <https://doi.org/10.1163/15718182-28040003>.

² Slobodan Miladinović, “Deca na internetu i onlajn društvenim mrežama,” in *Internet i društvo: Međunarodni tematski zbornik radova*, eds. Dragan Todorović, Dalibor Petrović, and Dragan Prlja (Beograd – Niš: Srpsko sociološko društvo; Univerzitet u Nišu – Filozofski fakultet; Institut za uporedno pravo, 2014), 444–46.

spend more than three hours a day – or seven hours a day at weekends – on their phones.³ By way of comparison, the number of internet users under the age of 18 increased by 18% between 2004 and 2009.⁴ Petrović notes that children primarily use the internet to meet others and to socialize on social media.⁵ The advantages of technology for children cannot be disregarded, but only where that technology is used appropriately.

An influencer is someone who has a considerable impact on social media through the content they create.⁶ Their focus may vary, ranging from health and travel to fashion and sport. The question is whether children can be influencers. Zorica Puljić notes that kidsfluencers are characterized as digital-first children, meaning that they are born and grow up in the digital era and handle technology with ease, so for them, there is no clear distinction between the real and the virtual world – which lays the ground for potential hazards.⁷ Children usually become the focus of an influencer's stories through their parents, who decide to share moments involving their children with their followers on social media. By posting their children's conversations, photos, or videos, parents have unwittingly used their children to attract attention on social media. Kidsfluencers are a phenomenon whereby children of various ages record different kinds of content that, over time, attracts a wider audience, gains a large number of followers, secures sponsorship deals, and thereby generates profit.

The main question that arises in relation to kidsfluencers concerns child labor. One cannot help but ask whether influencing is merely a source of fun or whether the demanding work of writing scripts and recording videos consumes too much of a child's free time, taking them away from school and study. A further question concerns the profit that kidsfluencers make. Privacy concerns, too, cannot be dismissed, given the information made available to everyone who follows a kidsfluencer. The problem is greater still if one considers the phenomenon of sharenting – that is, parents posting photos or videos of their children on social media in a way that affects the children's privacy.

Using the normative and comparative methods, the author proceeds from the assertion that there is a need for regulation and more detailed provisions at European Union level to protect children online. Further regulation is required in relation to the use of social networks and the supervision of children's online activities, both in terms of the acquisition and disposal of their property and in terms of how children's private data becomes accessible to online followers.

³ Dobrinka Kuzmanović et al., *Korišćenje interneta i digitalnih tehnologija kod dece i mladih u Srbiji: Rezultati istraživanja "Deca Evrope na internetu"* (Beograd: UNICEF, 2019), https://www.unicef.org/serbia/media/12511/file/koriscenje_interneta_i_digitalne_tehnologije_kod_dece_i_mladih_u_srbiji.pdf.

⁴ Marko Petrović, "Dečiji rad u digitalnom okruženju" (MA diss., Pravni fakultet Univerziteta u Nišu, 2023), 43.

⁵ Petrović, "Dečiji rad u digitalnom okruženju," 42–43.

⁶ Timea Kukla, "Kidsfluenceri: deca koja zarađuju hiljade evra na društvenim mrežama," Centar za nestalu i zlostavljaju decu, accessed January 27, 2026, <https://cnzd.rs/kidfluenseri-deca-koja-zaraduju-hiljade-evra-na-drustvenim-mrezama/>.

⁷ Zorica Puljić, "Djeca na društvenim mrežama" (BA diss., Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Filozofski fakultet Sveučilišta u Splitu, University of Split, 2023), 18.

2. Kidsfluencers: The Term and Its Functioning

2.1. About Kidsfluencers

Kidsfluencers mostly belong to the preschool and school-age groups, up to 16 years old, and create content on social media platforms such as YouTube, TikTok, and Instagram.⁸ Some children begin creating content in order to share their personal interests; in other cases, the children's parents play the key role of "family managers," encouraging and supporting a young person to produce content in return for financial compensation that can become a source of income for the family, with the children's own rights and wishes often being disregarded.⁹ Their content may relate to video games, clothes, or shoes, but also to storytelling or reviews of products and toys, including the opening of products, so-called "unboxing."¹⁰ Once they gain a solid following, they begin advertising. The more followers they attract, the greater the profit they can earn and the better the sponsorship opportunities available to them. As Nila McGinnis notes, kidsfluencers spend more time online each day than other children and devote all their time and energy to creating the kind of content that will attract new followers and appeal to existing ones.¹¹ There is additional pressure on these children to meet the expectations of the parents who draw them into influencing, as well as those of the sponsors who pay for the advertising. Kidsfluencing is a complex phenomenon centered on a child who occupies that position largely because of the parents' desire for their children to be recognized on social media and as a means of earning income for the family. This irreversibly exposes children's privacy to the public, and children are affected by comments, both positive and negative, which, at an early age, can adversely affect their self-confidence and psychological well-being in general.¹² Importantly, children have often resisted becoming social media stars, while their parents – who bear responsibility for them – have pushed them into the spotlight. This is especially significant given that social networks such as Instagram, TikTok, and YouTube do not permit the registration of users who are under 13 years of age.¹³ It is nonetheless concerning that 72% of the children included in one study opened their social media accounts themselves, and almost half were not old enough to comply with the terms of use.¹⁴ This points to the fact that children need not necessarily comply with the rules on

⁸ Maja Čolaković and Marko Bevanda, "Pravna zaštita djece u digitalnom okruženju: djeca influencersi (kidsfluencers)," in *Zbornik radova Pravo između stvaranja i tumačenja* (Istočno Sarajevo: Pravni fakultet u Istočnom Sarajevu, 2023), 207.

⁹ Malek Yassin, "Kidfluencing and Children's Mental Wellbeing?," The Wave Clinic, October 27, 2025, accessed January 28, 2026, <https://thewaveclinic.com/blog/kidfluencing-how-childrens-rights-and-well-being-are-overlooked/>.

¹⁰ Miriam Martínez Allué and Miguel Ángel Martín Cárda, "Kidfluencers: An Analysis of the Communication Strategies of Child Influencers on YouTube and TikTok and Their Impact on Children's Audience," *Visual Review* 16, no. 5 (2024): 264, <https://doi.org/10.62161/revvisual.v16.5301>.

¹¹ Nila McGinnis, "'They're Just Playing': Why Child Social Media Stars Need Enhanced Coogan Protections to Save Them from Their Parents," *Missouri Law Review* 87, no. 1 (2022): 16, <https://scholarship.law.missouri.edu/mlr/vol87/iss1/10>.

¹² Kukla, "Kidsfluenceri," accessed January 27, 2026, <https://cnzd.rs/kidfluenceri-deca-koja-zaradjuju-hiljade-evra-na-drustvenim-mrezama/>.

¹³ Petrović, "Dečiji rad u digitalnom okruženju," 46–49.

¹⁴ *Ibid.*, 64.

the minimum age for creating accounts and using social networks, and that there is no supervisory authority to monitor this.

What are the origins of the kidsfluencer? Maja Čolaković and Marko Bevanda explain the phenomenon by reference to the changes brought about over time, and in particular the fact that people place greater trust in influencers than in “traditional stars.”¹⁵ They cite research in which 70% of respondents, mostly children, considered that their favorite influencer understood them better than their real friends did. Children trust influencers of their own age, believing that they share the same needs. Miriam Martínez Allué and Miguel Ángel Martín Cárdbaba place particular emphasis on the parasocial relationship that develops online between an influencer and their followers, defined as “the emotional connection of intimacy and unidirectional friendship, despite the absence of a real two-way relationship.”¹⁶ This is why a product is best marketed through a kidsfluencer. Some of them have become global stars and well-known YouTubers, and have secured a place on the Forbes list.¹⁷

Finally, it should be stressed that kidsfluencers do not live like other children: their days are planned, as is their clothing, because they are recognized by others, and they enjoy no privacy of their own, since their fans recognize them in the street.¹⁸ Maintaining a good image matters both for retaining existing followers and cooperation agreements and for attracting potential new sponsors.¹⁹ Their childhood is different because of the influencing; they do not control their own time, nor do they have the opportunity to take a break or to say that they do not feel like being filmed. Given the previously mentioned fact that they are exposed to a range of comments, one can only imagine the psychological consequences that influencing may have for them.

2.2. Money Management

As noted above, kidsfluencers have emerged and persist because of changing times, namely the growth of trust in influencers – especially peers – rather than in traditional stars. By recording various kinds of content, kidsfluencers attract not only followers but also potential sponsors, that is, companies that decide to entrust them with money to advertise their products. This has given rise to so-called “influencer marketing,” in which brands establish partnerships with social media influencers to promote their products or services.²⁰ As Martínez Allué and Martín Cárdbaba state, this form of marketing is more effective because kidsfluencers are perceived as “attractive and credible experts.”²¹ In light of all this, it is unsurprising that kidsfluencing generates substantial profit. A particular dilemma

¹⁵ Čolaković and Bevanda, “Pravna zaštita djece u digitalnom okruženju: djeca influencersi (kidsfluencers),” 206.

¹⁶ Martínez Allué and Martín Cárdbaba, “Kidfluencers: An Analysis of the Communication Strategies of Child Influencers on YouTube and TikTok and Their Impact on Children’s Audience,” 265.

¹⁷ Čolaković and Bevanda, “Pravna zaštita djece u digitalnom okruženju: djeca influencersi (kidsfluencers),” 207.

¹⁸ Kukla, “Kidsfluenceri,” accessed January 27, 2026, <https://cnzd.rs/kidfluenseri-deca-koja-zaraduju-hiljade-evra-na-drustvenim-mrezama/>.

¹⁹ Ibid.

²⁰ Martínez Allué and Martín Cárdbaba, “Kidfluencers: An Analysis of the Communication Strategies of Child Influencers on YouTube and TikTok and Their Impact on Children’s Audience,” 264–65.

²¹ Ibid.

therefore arises regarding the disposal of the money that a child has acquired through influencing: to what extent can a child determine how their earnings are managed? This question is timely, given that some child influencers have earned millions of dollars, while others earn much more through advertising on social networks.²² A notable example is Ryan Kaji, who at the age of eight became the highest-paid “YouTuber” of 2019, earning \$26 million in a single year by posting videos of himself opening and trying out new toys. Nor is that all: Ryan has earned a further \$200 million from the branded toy and clothing line “Ryan’s World,” and has also signed a multi-million-dollar deal to broadcast his own television series.²³ On the one hand, these are plainly large sums of money that children cannot manage themselves. On the other hand, it is essential that there be clear rules on money management that do not operate to the detriment of children who earn such sums in this way, while at the same time safeguarding their best interests.

The disposal of a child’s property is a matter for the legislation of each country, and in most comparative-law systems it is the parents who are generally entitled to manage and dispose of property acquired by the child. In Serbia, for example, a child may have separate property, distinct from that of his parents, as reflected in the Family Act in the provision that “the child independently manages the property acquired through his own work.”²⁴ Marija Draškić highlights the educational and social importance of this provision, since it encourages children to earn a living and, by managing their earnings, instills in them a sense of responsibility for their own livelihood.²⁵ Furthermore, it is the right and duty of parents to administer property that the child did not acquire through their own work, essentially property received through inheritance or gift.²⁶ Although parents cannot manage property acquired by a child through their own work, they “have the right to undertake legal transactions to manage and dispose of the income earned by a child under the age of 15.”²⁷ This applies regardless of how the income was acquired, since the decisive criterion is the child’s age, on the assumption that a child under 15 will not be capable of managing and disposing of the income obtained. This provision is also relevant to a child who earns a profit from their activities on social networks. Serbian law further provides that parents may dispose of immovable property and high-value movable property only with the prior or subsequent consent of the guardianship authority.²⁸ This may, in the author’s view, be a sound means of safeguarding the best interests of the child and preventing the abuse of parental rights.

²² Marina A. Masterson, “When Play Becomes Work: Child Labor Laws in the Era of ‘Kidsfluencers,’” *University of Pennsylvania Law Review* 169, no. 2 (2020): 600.

²³ Madeline Berg, “The Highest Paid YouTube Stars of 2019: The Kids Are Killing It,” *Forbes*, December 18, 2019, accessed February 2, 2026, <https://www.forbes.com/sites/maddieberg/2019/12/18/the-highest-paid-youtube-stars-of-2019-the-kids-are-killing-it/>.

²⁴ Republic of Serbia, Family Act, Official Gazette of the Republic of Serbia, no. 18/2005, 72/2011, and 6/2015, Article 193.

²⁵ Marija Draškić, *Porodično pravo i prava deteta: Porodični zakon Srbije: praksa Evropskog suda za ljudska prava u oblasti porodičnog prava*, 11th ed. (Beograd: Pravni fakultet Univerziteta u Beogradu, 2020), 403.

²⁶ Nerimana Traljić and Suzana Bubić, *Porodično pravo*, 2nd ed. (Sarajevo: Editio Iuristica, 2001), 184.

²⁷ Family Act, Article 72.

²⁸ *Ibid.*, Article 193.

The problems associated with kidsfluencing are comparable to those relating to young actors, who have been part of the entertainment industry for generations and have earned a profit from an early age through their work in films and television programs.²⁹ The differences lie only in the manner in which the work is performed. In this respect, reference should be made to the Coogan Law, which may be regarded as a precursor to the protection of children from economic exploitation. The right of child actors to dispose of the earnings from their professional careers was first considered in US litigation in 1938, when Jackie Coogan, a former child star in Charlie Chaplin's films, sued his mother and his stepfather – who was his manager – for having spent all of his acting earnings (estimated at the time at \$3–4 million) on luxury items for the two of them.³⁰ Before the Californian law was changed, parents became the owners of the income their minor child had earned through their work. Coogan was able to recover, through the courts, only a small portion of the profits he had earned through his own work, but his case resonated with the public, and especially with lawyers, as a warning that the position of children who earn income from acting needed to be regulated. This led to the enactment of the California Child Actors Act of 1939 (the so-called Coogan Act, or Coogan Bill).³¹ The legislation required parents to open a bank account in the child's name, into which the child's employer would pay 15% of the child's salary until the child turned 18. The law was subsequently amended to strengthen the protection of the property rights and earnings of underage actors, marking the beginning of regulation in this field.

3. Privacy Concerns

The question of children's privacy on the internet³² is a complex one, and it encompasses not only kidsfluencing but also sharenting, that is, the phenomenon whereby parents upload photos and videos of their children through their own accounts or use them to record advertisements.³³ The issue is all the more pressing given that the Convention on the Rights of the Child guarantees the right to privacy.³⁴ Čolaković and Bevanda observe that this matter is particularly important because children are more susceptible to pressure when it comes to revealing information about themselves, are inexperienced on account of their age, and may find the consequences of the availability of their personal data more harmful than adults would.³⁵ These consequences include cyberbullying, psychological

²⁹ Yassin, "Kidfluencing and Children's Mental Wellbeing?," accessed January 28, 2026, <https://thewaveclinic.com/blog/kidfluencing-how-childrens-rights-and-well-being-are-overlooked/>.

³⁰ McGinnis, "They're Just Playing," 3.

³¹ The California Child Actor's Bill of 1939.

³² For more, see: Dragana B. Petrović, "Privacy and Protection of Personal Data – Criminal Law Aspect," *Strani pravni život* 66, no. 4 (2022): 469–89, https://doi.org/10.56461/SPZ_22407KJ; Dragan V. Golubović and Milena S. Galetin, "Pregled prakse Evropskog suda za ljudska prava od značaja za obradu podataka o ličnosti putem video-nadzora," *Strani pravni život* 68, no. 1 (2024): 61–81, https://doi.org/10.56461/SPZ_24104KJ.

³³ Uroš P. Novaković, "Sharenting – pravo roditelja ili zloupotreba prava deteta," *Sociološki pregled* 59, no. 1 (2025): 346–72, <https://doi.org/10.5937/socpreg59-53981>.

³⁴ Convention on the Rights of the Child, 20 November 1989, 1577 U.N.T.S. 3 (entered into force 2 September 1990), Article 16.

³⁵ Čolaković and Bevanda, "Pravna zaštita djece u digitalnom okruženju: djeca influencersi (kidsfluencers)," 222.

problems, and personality disorders, bearing in mind that children's data are thereby stored permanently, and that children's public personas will, as a rule, become permanently associated with particular products.³⁶

Privacy concerns are greater still in the case of sharenting. Uroš Novaković defines sharenting as the use of social media by parents to share content about their children – through text posts, photos, and videos containing the child's personal data – as an aspect of the exercise of parental rights, which allows parents to decide entirely independently on their child's visibility on the internet, without involving the child in that decision.³⁷ In this way, children have an online presence from a very early age, which exposes them to negative comments and means that their photos, recordings, and private data are made publicly available to everyone who follows their parents on social networks, even to those who do not know the child personally. As with kidsfluencing, there is an interest in protecting the child's privacy in sharenting, except that here it is the parent who decides to share content relating to the child, as an exercise of the parent's authority to determine how parental rights are exercised.³⁸ Although sharing content on social networks is part of many parents' daily routine, it is rightly noted that such conduct harms the relationship between parents and children, particularly during adolescence, undermines their privacy, and gives rise to conflict.³⁹ Moreover, publishing the data, photos, or videos of adolescents may also damage their relationships with other children and potentially lead to peer violence, which is why the child's consent is necessary. The child's consent should be sought once they are capable of understanding the significance of publishing their personal data, although it remains an open question where to draw the line between cases in which publishing children's personal data without their consent is, and is not, justified. Novaković notes that the right to privacy is jeopardized through sharenting where a large volume of data concerning children under the age of 13 is stored via the YouTube platform without their parents' consent, as a result of which the company was required to pay damages.⁴⁰ A violation of privacy has also been the subject of court proceedings, in which a mother sought a declaratory judgment establishing her child's right to privacy following the publication of a photograph by the father, together with a prohibition on any future publication.⁴¹ The court adopted a preventive approach, stressing that one should not wait for harm to materialize, since its occurrence would seriously jeopardize the child's well-being.⁴²

The importance of protecting children's privacy on the internet has not been matched by a corresponding volume of regulation. Legal systems that have incorporated such protection into their legislation remain rare. One example is French law, which contains dedicated rules on child influencers – a specific instrument that expressly protects the

³⁶ Ibid.

³⁷ Novaković, "Sharenting," 346.

³⁸ Ibid., 349.

³⁹ Ibid., 350.

⁴⁰ Ibid.

⁴¹ Court of Appeals in Kragujevac, Judgment Gž2 187/2022, 19 May 2022.

⁴² Novaković, "Sharenting," 351.

image of children on social networks⁴³ – and those provisions are discussed in the remainder of this paper.

Mention should also be made of the right to erasure of personal data – the “right to be forgotten” – provided for by the General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR).⁴⁴ The provisions of that regulation allow personal data to be erased, for adults and for children of all ages alike.⁴⁵ This provision is distinctive because, in practical terms, it means that even children may request the deletion of their personal data online, something that may be expected once they are able to understand the significance, and hence the consequences, of publishing such data. This appears particularly important in the context of the “right to be forgotten,” under which the erasure of data published when the child was younger addresses an unintended consequence of that publication. The provision seems especially important in cases of sharenting, where it is the parents who publish their children’s personal data, photos, and recordings, a matter likewise governed by Article 17.⁴⁶

4. The Complexity of Child Labor

Although we are witnessing the modernization of society, some relics of the past have eluded any solution in comparative law or global strategy. Child labor is one such case. Although child labor reached its peak in the factories of Great Britain in the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries,⁴⁷ it persists in various forms even today. Before turning to a more detailed analysis, it is important to stress that a child’s work may be regarded both as an activity that benefits children and as one that harms their development. In this sense, a distinction may be drawn between child labor and child work.⁴⁸ “Child work” denotes work permitted to a child within the framework of the law, which is desirable before adulthood and can benefit the child by fostering their psychological, moral, and mental development.⁴⁹ The concept of “child work” encompasses all forms of permitted work for children, regardless of the child’s age or capacity to work, ranging from light household chores, through school-related duties, to work tasks in the formal employment of children over 15 (or 14) years of age.⁵⁰ It is the kind of work that does not interfere with children’s education, rest, or recreation. Such work is regarded as desirable because it teaches children

⁴³ Čolaković and Bevanda, “Pravna zaštita djece u digitalnom okruženju: djeca influencersi (kidsfluencers),” 225–26.

⁴⁴ European Parliament and Council, Regulation (EU) 2016/679 of 27 April 2016 on the protection of natural persons with regard to the processing of personal data and on the free movement of such data, and repealing Directive 95/46/EC (General Data Protection Regulation) (OJ L 119, 4 May 2016), Article 8.

⁴⁵ Ibid., Article 17.

⁴⁶ Čolaković and Bevanda, “Pravna zaštita djece u digitalnom okruženju: djeca influencersi (kidsfluencers),” 227.

⁴⁷ Jovana Rajić Čalić, “Posebna radnopravna zaštita osjetljivih kategorija zaposlenih – ratio legis, legitimni ciljevi i instrumenti zaštite” (PhD diss., Pravni fakultet Univerziteta u Beogradu, 2023), 79.

⁴⁸ Vladan Jovanović, *Zaštita dece od zloupotrebe dečijeg rada – sa fokusom na normativnu uređenost*, Projekat Međunarodne organizacije rada „Angažovanje i podrška na nacionalnom nivou za smanjenje pojave dečijeg rada” (Beograd, 2016), 10.

⁴⁹ Rajić Čalić, “Posebna radnopravna zaštita osjetljivih kategorija zaposlenih,” 79–80.

⁵⁰ Mario Reljanović, “Suppression of Child Labour – Brief Overview of International Standards,” *Strani pravni život* 62, no. 4 (2018): 109, <https://doi.org/10.5937/spz0-19579>.

work habits and skills that they will need later in life. In many countries, the activities described as child work may serve as a basis for earning pocket money. Consequently, it is important to bear in mind that not every activity undertaken by a child amounts to child labor in the sense of the prohibitions established by modern legal systems. Not everything a child does is exploitative in nature; on the contrary, it is desirable for children to help their parents with everyday tasks and to take part in artistic or sporting activities.

The International Labour Organization defines child labor as work that deprives children of their childhood, dignity, and potential and that is harmful to their mental and physical development.⁵¹ The causes of child labor vary, and include poverty, dysfunctional families, a lack of education, and the unemployment of adult family members.⁵² With a view to eliminating child labor, the International Labour Organization has classified it into four categories: slavery and slavery-like practices; child prostitution; illegal activities involving children, such as drug trafficking; and work that, by its nature or the circumstances in which it is carried out, is likely to harm the health, safety, or morals of children.⁵³

So, is kidsfluencing equivalent to child labor?

The question of whether the work of kidsfluencers constitutes child labor does not admit of a simple answer. The answer should probably be sought in the fact that the society we live in has changed, as has the way in which work is performed. For this reason, we cannot view what kidsfluencers do through the lens of traditional working practices, the context in which child labor is defined. As Friederike Siewert asks, are the activities of kidsfluencing work or play?⁵⁴ Although children may create their own virtual space on social media out of curiosity, it cannot be overlooked that being an influencer amounts to a job involving long hours on a daily basis. It entails devising and writing scripts, recording video clips, and communicating daily with followers, whether live or through messages on social media, as well as interacting with viewers.⁵⁵ There are no fixed working hours, since this is not based on a formal employment contract. It must also be borne in mind that there is a lack of adequate legal protection for children as a vulnerable group. Accordingly, it has been argued that the absence of legal regulation, coupled with the growing number of children in the influencer industry, will create opportunities for the exploitation of children.⁵⁶ Although some parents frequently insist that influencing is fun for their children, we must not lose sight of the fact that, through this form of participation, children generate substantial profit, which is managed by their parents, who also control the children's appearance on social networks, their content

⁵¹ International Labour Organization, "What Is Child Labour?," accessed February 6, 2026, <https://libguides.ilo.org/child-labour-en>.

⁵² Rajić Čalić, "Posebna radnopravna zaštita osetljivih kategorija zaposlenih," 81.

⁵³ Franziska Humbert, *The Challenge of Child Labour in International Law* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2009), 19.

⁵⁴ Friederike Siewert, "New Forms of Child Labour: A Study on Kidfluencing from a Human Rights Perspective" (MA diss., Umeå University, 2024), 10.

⁵⁵ Čolaković and Bevanda, "Pravna zaštita djece u digitalnom okruženju: djeca influencersi (kidsfluencers)," 216.

⁵⁶ Puljić, "Djeca na društvenim mrežama," 18.

creation, and negotiations with sponsors.⁵⁷ The activities of children as influencers, although seemingly voluntary and “fun,” are in fact closely bound up with the commercial interests of brands and digital platforms, especially through advertising.⁵⁸ Kidsfluencers serve as a tool for direct and indirect marketing strategies, which contributes to the commercialization of their work – an activity that, for all its appearance as playful and educational, is driven by economic incentives.⁵⁹ It should also be borne in mind that 60% of exploitation cases were reported online through various social media platforms,⁶⁰ which is a clear indication of the need to regulate children’s activity on the internet.

Nor can McGinnis’s observation about the lives of these children be overlooked, given that they are usually isolated from their friends and miss out on sporting and school activities.⁶¹ This raises the question whether kidsfluencing interferes with school attendance. Malek Yassin warns of the particular mental-health situation of children who take on “adult roles” by earning income for the family, since such responsibilities can become overwhelming and deprive them of time for exploring, playing, and socializing.⁶² This may make such children more vulnerable to mental-health disorders as they grow older. Fahira Fatmawati and Kayus Kayowuan Lewoleba, for their part, identify potential psychological violence in the form of threats, intimidation, manipulation, social exclusion, and verbal humiliation, which can affect children’s growth and development, including their mental health.⁶³ Yassin warns that these online activities can have a serious impact on children’s self-esteem, sense of self-worth, and well-being, because children, and adolescents in particular, are exposed to the judgment of others, and some may even experience cyberbullying.⁶⁴ Amber Lynn draws attention to the harm to children involved in influencing, such as pressure, stress, difficulty in forming a strong sense of self, and various other risks to their mental well-being,⁶⁵ while Ai Permanasari highlights depression and anxiety as further consequences.⁶⁶

Since parents usually encourage or compel their children to engage in influencing, whether on their own or together with them, we must ask whether parents bear responsibility both for economic exploitation and for the management of the resulting income.

⁵⁷ Siewert, “New Forms of Child Labour,” 9.

⁵⁸ *Ibid.*, 10.

⁵⁹ *Ibid.*

⁶⁰ Fahira Fatmawati and Kayus Kayowuan Lewoleba, “Kidfluencer: Child Exploitation in Digital Space in Terms of Child Protection Law,” *Journal of Law, Politic and Humanities* 4, no. 4 (2024): 956, <https://doi.org/10.38035/jlph.v4i4.437>.

⁶¹ McGinnis, ““They’re Just Playing,” 17.

⁶² Yassin, “Kidfluencing and Children’s Mental Wellbeing?,” accessed January 28, 2026, <https://thewaveclinic.com/blog/kidfluencing-how-childrens-rights-and-well-being-are-overlooked/>.

⁶³ Fatmawati and Kayowuan Lewoleba, “Kidfluencer: Child Exploitation,” 956.

⁶⁴ Yassin, “Kidfluencing and Children’s Mental Wellbeing?,” accessed January 29, 2026, <https://thewaveclinic.com/blog/kidfluencing-how-childrens-rights-and-well-being-are-overlooked/>.

⁶⁵ Amber Lynn, “Kidfluencing: The Mental Impacts of Posting on Social Media Can Have on Children and Parents. How Social Media Presence Can Have Mental Impacts on Children and Parents” (research paper, The Research Archive of Rising Scholars, October 2, 2023), 2, <https://doi.org/10.58445/rars.537>.

⁶⁶ Ai Permanasari, “The Urgency of Child Labor Rights Protection as an Influencer,” in *Proceedings of the 1st International Conference on Education, Humanities, Health and Agriculture (ICEHHA)*, 3–4 June 2021, Ruteng, Flores, Indonesia, 6, <https://doi.org/10.4108/eai.3-6-2021.2310834>.

Siewert concludes that the digital work of child influencers constitutes child labor because it represents a source of economic value, and she rejects the view held by some parents that they are the ones doing the real work, given that the children are the central element of that work and content, without whom the parents would have no platform.⁶⁷ Similarly, Martínez Allué and Martín Cárdaña maintain that kidsfluencers can undeniably be exploited by adults and companies for commercial purposes, and that responsibility is shared between parents, educators, and the digital platforms themselves.⁶⁸

The author maintains that this critical issue does not admit of a single, clear-cut answer. However, given the ubiquity of kidsfluencing, national criteria must be established in order to determine, on a case-by-case basis, whether a child's content-creation activities constitute child labor. It is proposed that these criteria be tied to two fundamental variables: the time spent online and the profit generated. Consequently, where the time spent exceeds the statutory threshold and the financial earnings reach a substantial level, such engagement can no longer be classified as a harmless activity driven merely by childhood curiosity.

5. Case Studies of Legislation in Comparative Law

In this part of the paper, the author examines the legal rules governing the status of kidsfluencers in those jurisdictions that regulate their position, and seeks to identify the challenges faced by other countries that have no specific legislation in this area. The greatest difficulty in conducting this research is that comprehensive regulation of kidsfluencers remains rare.

In Germany, there are still no specific rules that apply directly to kidsfluencers, but there are statutes containing provisions on the legal capacity of minors that require parental consent for contracts concluded by minors. This is crucial for the activity of kidsfluencers who engage in commercial activities, provided that the parents act in the best interests of their children. The Youth Protection Act,⁶⁹ for instance, focuses on protecting minors from harmful content and activities, which may be particularly relevant for young influencers exposed to commercial pressures and to the content demands of the influencer industry.⁷⁰ Under German law, there is an obligation to register a business where income is generated. Influencers who consistently earn income from their activities are treated as businesses and are therefore required to register formally, and this applies to child influencers as well. In most cases, however, parents register the business in their own name – on the basis that it is the children who are “influencing” – so that the money earned is often paid into the parents’ account. Siewert considers the current German legislation ineffective, even though it prescribes the permitted number of working

⁶⁷ Siewert, “New Forms of Child Labour,” 11.

⁶⁸ Martínez Allué and Martín Cárdaña, “Kidfluencers: An Analysis of the Communication Strategies of Child Influencers on YouTube and TikTok and Their Impact on Children’s Audience,” 266.

⁶⁹ Siewert, “New Forms of Child Labour,” 19.

⁷⁰ *Ibid.*, 19–21.

hours for each age group and prohibits child labor, and she argues that a dedicated law should be enacted to regulate the activities of kidsfluencers.⁷¹

Although the number of kidsfluencers is increasing, Spain still has no law that comprehensively regulates their work. The need for specific regulation clearly exists, even though Spanish law contains standards relating to child labor, such as the prohibition on employing children under the age of 16, the prohibition on night work, and the prohibition on performing work that is prohibited by law.⁷² Legal scholars take the view that an activity that is shared with followers and generates income should be regarded as a work activity.⁷³ At present, the only instrument in force is the Minor Influencers Guide, which is addressed to advertising-industry professionals and to the parents of influencers and concerns commercial advertising on the platforms.⁷⁴ Unlike children engaged as actors or singers, whose work must be approved by a special authority, kidsfluencers are currently subject to no restrictions other than a minimum age requirement for employment. Nor is there any child-protection obligation for the platforms that promote kidsfluencer profiles; the emerging legislation aims to regulate content and advertising but does not extend to the work of child influencers.

In the United Kingdom, there is still no law regulating the position of influencers, and the EU Council for Youth, Education, Culture, and Sport has drawn attention to the responsibility of parents for the well-being of the children of influencers online.⁷⁵ Nevertheless, the Council identified legal gaps in this area and the need to fill them, so that parents might become familiar with the applicable rules and in order to promote better media literacy. On that occasion, legal gaps were also noted in relation to the position of child actors and models, since there are no laws ensuring the safety of children on set or their protection online in terms of privacy, working hours, and earned income, or addressing the impact of these online activities – an area that remains a “grey zone” to this day.⁷⁶

Pending such legislation, kidsfluencers in the United Kingdom may derive some protection from consumer-protection rules, insofar as these require good faith when products are placed on the market or promoted on social networks.⁷⁷ Although this form of protection for children online is, in the author’s view, wholly inadequate, since it requires many further provisions, it is commendable that the United Kingdom has independent

⁷¹ Siewert, “New Forms of Child Labour,” 21.

⁷² Núria Bigas Formatjé, “Niños ‘influencers’, un fenómeno en auge sin regulación,” Universitat Oberta de Catalunya, June 12, 2024, accessed June 5, 2026, <https://www.uoc.edu/es/news/2024/ninos-influencers-fenomeno-auge-sin-regulacion>.

⁷³ Ibid.

⁷⁴ Esther Martínez-Pastor, Rodrigo Cetina-Presuel, and Isabel Serrano-Maíllo, “Minors as Content Creators: A Study of the Effectiveness of Advertising Regulation in the United States, the United Kingdom and Spain,” *Media Studies* 13, no. 26 (2022): 55–73, 58, <https://doi.org/10.20901/ms.13.26.3>.

⁷⁵ Francis Rees, “Famous at Five: Risk Assessing Digital Child Labour,” *Information & Communications Technology Law* 34, no. 3 (2025): 225–26, <https://doi.org/10.1080/13600834.2025.2452699>.

⁷⁶ Ibid.

⁷⁷ Claire Marzo, “Influencers, Labour Law and Social Protection: A Comparative Analysis between France and the United Kingdom,” in *The Hashtag Hustle: Law and Policy Perspectives on Working in the Influencer Economy*, eds. Taylor Annabell et al. (Cheltenham: Edward Elgar Publishing, 2025), 141.

bodies overseeing the application of due-diligence standards, and the influencer marketing code of conduct may perhaps represent a first step towards the drafting of legislation.

Unlike other European Union countries, the statistics for the Baltic states do not record a high proportion of children in employment (in Lithuania, the figure is 5.8% and in Latvia 5.9%, while Estonia has the highest proportion, at 10.2%).⁷⁸ The low prevalence of child labor is attributable to strict national rules on the minimum age, working hours, and minimum wages, to a strong system of social protection for adults, which reduces the need for child labor, and to a higher age limit for completing primary education.⁷⁹ Nevertheless, the interest in creating online content has not passed these countries by, and it has been fueled largely by parents – themselves influencers – who have included their children in their content. What prompted scrutiny of influencer children in the Baltic states, and in Lithuania in particular, was that the vast majority of parents, when approached by the news portal that surveyed them, failed to report the income associated with content involving their children, and also refused to provide information about the children's working arrangements and how much free time they had.⁸⁰ This attracted considerable public attention, including that of the Ombudsperson for Children's Rights, which raised awareness of the need to regulate the position of kidsfluencers. Although concrete provisions regulating the work of kidsfluencers are still awaited, their position is for the time being governed by the civil-law contracts that are common in Lithuania, Latvia, and Estonia. This may be identified as a shortcoming of this legal framework, given that the level of protection afforded by civil-law contracts is lower than that afforded by labor law, which provides special protection as a European standard. It is therefore proposed that comprehensive legislation be enacted to regulate child labor, whether based on a civil or an employment contract.⁸¹ The authors particularly emphasize the importance of adopting such regulation, noting that in Latvia and Estonia, there are labor laws that only partially protect children engaged in cultural, artistic, sporting, and advertising activities, whereas in Lithuania, such protection is absent, as is any protection for children who carry out activities under civil-law contracts.⁸² Although the laws regulating child labor in the Baltic states give primacy to physical well-being in the context of traditional forms of employment, the new legislation needs to focus on the psychological state of children and on digital work.

Fatmawati and Lewoleba observe that the regulation and protection of children's rights in the case of kidsfluencers remains a distant prospect, particularly under Indonesian law.⁸³ Children are only partially protected by the Child Protection Act, which permits children to work in accordance with their age and interests and within limited working hours. Child influencers are not regarded as workers; rather, it is their parents

⁷⁸ Kristina Ambrazevičiūtė, Kristine Dupate, and Merle Erikson, "Child Work in the Digital Twenty-First Century: The Experience of the Baltic States," in *Children's Rights in Central and Eastern Europe*, eds. Agnė Limantė and Rūta Vaičiūnienė (Cham: Springer, 2025), 119, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-032-07092-0_7.

⁷⁹ Ibid.

⁸⁰ Ibid., 126.

⁸¹ Ibid., 133.

⁸² Ibid., 134.

⁸³ Fatmawati and Kayowuan Lewoleba, "Kidfluencer: Child Exploitation," 964.

who are treated as carrying out the activities on social networks in the technology sector, which, overall, constitutes an aggravating circumstance when determining whether the children are being economically exploited. Moreover, children who work on social networks are perceived as idols and role models rather than as employees.

On the other side of the world, Illinois became the first US state to pass a law, in 2023, laying down certain requirements for those who have a social media presence and produce online videos.⁸⁴ The legislation gives those under the age of 18 the right to seek fair compensation for their participation in social media content, and allows parents in Illinois to set aside 50% of the earnings in a blocked trust fund for the child, in proportion to the child's contribution to the making of the videos.⁸⁵ This is a sound starting point for regulating the phenomenon of influencing, although, as noted, there remains a lack of provisions dealing specifically with minors as influencers.

France led the way as the first country to begin regulating digital child labor, in 2021, paying particular attention to rest periods, working hours, and medical examinations,⁸⁶ which it regarded as fundamental to children's safe engagement in such activities. Online child labor is often associated with the work of child models and actors in the media, coupled with the right to be forgotten and the right to have content removed as newly recognized rights – the regulatory principle adopted by the French legislature.⁸⁷

In France, therefore, the same protection is afforded to kidsfluencers as to child models and actors. The legal framework is provided by French labor law, so that kidsfluencers are classified as employees and are protected even when they work without a formal contract.⁸⁸ Particular note should be taken of the requirement of authorization for work on social networks by an administrative authority, as well as of the protection of the income a child earns from such activities until they reach adulthood. A special place is occupied by the so-called right to have content deleted from the platform. Specifically, whenever content focusing on the face of the kidsfluencer is shared online, the approval of the aforementioned authority must be sought; that approval is granted “in the best interests of the child,” on the basis of the child's capacity to perform the work, their age, their state of health, and their online activities.⁸⁹ Where approval is granted, the administrative authority informs the kidsfluencer's legal representatives about the protection of children's rights in connection with the publication of video content, the consequences for private life, and the financial obligations arising from the profits generated. We consider this provision particularly important for the protection of children involved in influencing, and it may be regarded as one of the measures that contribute to the protection of kidsfluencers. Nevertheless, the scope of this provision may legitimately be questioned, given that parents are often the ones who encourage children to take part in these activities because

⁸⁴ Siewert, “New Forms of Child Labour,” 12.

⁸⁵ Ibid.

⁸⁶ Ambrazevičiūtė, Dupate, and Erikson, “Child Work in the Digital Twenty-First Century,” 123.

⁸⁷ Rees, “Famous at Five,” 226–27.

⁸⁸ Ambrazevičiūtė, Dupate, and Erikson, “Child Work in the Digital Twenty-First Century,” 124.

⁸⁹ Ibid.

of the profit they generate, and that a considerable number of parents who are themselves influencers use their children to create content (the sharenting referred to earlier).

The French legislature paid particular attention to the maximum amount of time that a kidsfluencer may spend online on a daily and weekly basis, the duration of which is fixed by secondary legislation. This demonstrates the French legislature's keen awareness of all the circumstances surrounding kidsfluencing. We consider this provision important also for the purpose of distinguishing between child work and kidsfluencer activities, since more than three hours a day spent on social networks may, in our view, have a harmful effect on a child, on their psychological state, and on their education. What remains an open question is the mechanism for monitoring the time actually spent.

Nor did the legislature overlook the financial aspects of kidsfluencing: it provided that the income generated by the child be paid into a dedicated account for the child, with only a small part made available to their legal representatives. In light of the examples mentioned above of parents misappropriating a kidsfluencer's earnings, it may be concluded that the question of profit is a very important aspect of influencing. This is primarily because, as noted, parents often support or compel their children to engage in these activities solely for the sake of profit, and frequently because of parents' imprudent spending, as a result of which children fall victim to financial exploitation by their parents. The rule providing for the money to be kept in a separate account until the age of majority, with withdrawals permitted only in exceptional circumstances, should therefore be commended.

Influencers also have the right to request the removal of content featuring their image from the platform, with or without parental consent, with a view to better protecting the child's privacy and personal data.⁹⁰ Although the right to be forgotten is undoubtedly important, the authors point to potential shortcomings in its application, relating to the child's understanding of the consequences of deleting content from the platform, to the implementation of such a request and questions of liability, and to the inability of younger children to exercise this right, which can be especially problematic where the content has gone viral.⁹¹

The author contends that the existing regulatory frameworks in Germany fall short of adequately safeguarding child influencers. While the Youth Protection Act addresses digital content that could potentially harm minors, it does not adequately cover their labor or their financial interests. Consequently, the author suggests that the legal requirements governing how parents disclose and manage their children's online income should be amended in order to prevent the financial exploitation of the child. The legal rules in Spain are likewise unsatisfactory, even though certain provisions protect children involved in acting and modeling, and notwithstanding the Minor Influencers Guide. As regards the law of the United Kingdom, the first step towards regulating kidsfluencers may be seen in the recognition of the legal gaps affecting the well-being of children online. It is true that parents bear the greatest responsibility for the work of kidsfluencers, but that responsibility cannot, in our view, be theirs alone. An analysis

⁹⁰ Ibid., 125.

⁹¹ Rees, "Famous at Five," 227.

of the prevailing academic literature indicates that the United Kingdom is in need of a comprehensive legislative overhaul. Such a framework should not only establish robust controls for child social media influencers but also introduce enhanced safeguards for young people working in traditional modelling and acting roles. The Baltic states face a pressing need to regulate child influencers. It is vital that their activities be governed by labor law rather than by civil-law contracts, in line with the heightened protection for minors found in comparative legal systems. With the number of kidsfluencers rising across Lithuania, Latvia, and Estonia, new comprehensive legislation is essential in order to safeguard their physical and psychological well-being in a systematic way. Indonesian law requires a structured regulatory framework, and this process must begin with the formal classification of child influencing as employment subject to proper supervision and rules. The state of Illinois is taking significant steps in the right direction towards regulating the “kidsfluencer” industry. Particularly commendable is its requirement that half of a child’s influencing profits be placed in a special, parent-proof account. This safeguard, which mirrors rules already established in France, effectively prevents the financial exploitation of children.

Finally, we are inclined to conclude that French law, framed in this way, has taken the first and decisive step towards the standardization of the status of kidsfluencers and their almost complete protection. Since the author takes the view that responsibility for the safety of a kidsfluencer cannot lie with the parents alone, we would particularly emphasize the importance of the administrative body that gives the consent required for the creation of content. While educating parents about the psychological consequences of unexpected virality remains necessary, the effectiveness of such education is highly debatable in view of the powerful economic incentives of the digital-creator market. Accordingly, recognizing the priority and duration of primary education, the law rightly imposes strict daily limits on internet participation, thereby safeguarding the time a child needs for healthy, real-world socialization. Perhaps the most significant feature of the French model is the prevention of economic exploitation through the mandatory deposit of a portion of the profits into a dedicated bank account, accessible only upon reaching adulthood. Such a measure should serve as a cornerstone for future legislative initiatives in comparative law, effectively shielding minors from both parental abuse and their own imprudent financial decisions. Consequently, the work of children on digital platforms is not prohibited but rather systematically regulated in all its essential respects. By guaranteeing the right to education, minimizing risks to psychological health, and preventing financial abuse, this law serves as an exemplary global benchmark for regularizing the legal status of kidsfluencers.

6. Conclusions

Bearing in mind the concept of child labor, it is difficult to determine whether there is a connection between child labor and kidsfluencers. This activity begins with the child’s fun and curiosity in trying something new. As their followers grow, along with the income from advertising, there comes increasing pressure to maintain the same level of

popularity on social media platforms. In order to achieve this, children spend too many hours creating viral content. Such involvement entails hard work and many hours devoted to script-writing and video-making. This activity is no longer purely recreational, and it is often accompanied by fatigue and exhaustion. In order to establish a clear boundary between innocent child's play and digital child labor, we propose two specific assessment criteria. First, the time spent online should be limited; for children under 15, spending up to two hours a day creating and promoting content may be regarded as developmentally safe. This limited timeframe protects a child's education, mental health, and social development. Second, financial gain serves as an important threshold. Where a child's online activity generates profits exceeding ordinary pocket money, or where it involves direct product endorsements, it crosses the line into the unacceptable territory of child labor.

Even so, it is difficult to draw the line between entertainment and economic exploitation, so each case must be assessed individually when determining whether child labor is involved. Consequently, it is imperative to establish clear regulatory frameworks governing kidsfluencing at the national level, with the primary objective of ensuring the protection of children. Unlike French legislation, comparative law worldwide largely lacks statutory limits on minors' online activities. Given the profound effect of digital engagement on young people's socialization and psychological well-being, this paper proposes that national legal frameworks impose strict daily time limits on content creation for individuals under the age of 15. Specifically, in order to address the growing phenomenon of "kidsfluencing" among younger cohorts, a tiered model of restrictions is recommended: a maximum of one hour a day for children up to 10 years of age, and two hours for those up to 15. Furthermore, this temporal cap should extend throughout adolescence, restricting minor influencers to a maximum of three hours of content creation a day. Implementing these measures requires a comprehensive state strategy. Such a framework should incorporate dedicated digital-management software to block platform access automatically once the daily limits are reached, together with oversight by an independent monitoring body, such as a children's ombudsman. Because parental encouragement is often the driving force behind children's digital labor, national policies must give priority to parental education if the kidsfluencing sector is to be regulated effectively. In addition, mandatory weekly psychotherapy for child influencers and their guardians is proposed, in order to protect young people's mental health and to counteract parental pressure. Finally, as regards financial compensation, the author advocates a mandatory structural split: 75% of all revenue generated must be secured in a locked account until the minor reaches the age of majority, while the remaining 25% may be made available to the parents strictly for the child's immediate welfare. This distribution of funds would likewise be subject to independent regulatory oversight. Given the potential for digital labor to disrupt formal schooling, these systemic interventions remain essential at least until the age of 15, which marks the completion of primary education.

Funding: This work is a result of research within the project “Adapting the Legal Framework to Social and Technological Changes with a Special Focus on Artificial Intelligence,” carried out in 2025 by the Institute of Comparative Law with financial support from the Ministry of Science, Technological Development and Innovation (contract number 451-03-136/2025-03/200049).

References

- Ambrazevičiūtė, Kristina, Kristine Dupate, and Merle Erikson. “Child Work in the Digital Twenty-First Century: The Experience of the Baltic States.” In *Children’s Rights in Central and Eastern Europe*, edited by Agnė Limantė, Rūta Vaičiūnienė, 119–37. Cham: Springer, 2025. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-032-07092-0_7.
- Berg, Madeline. “The Highest Paid YouTube Stars of 2019: The Kids Are Killing It.” *Forbes*, December 18, 2019. Accessed February 2, 2026. <https://www.forbes.com/sites/maddie-berg/2019/12/18/the-highest-paid-youtube-stars-of-2019-the-kids-are-killing-it/>.
- Bigas Formatjé, Núria. “Niños ‘influencers’, un fenómeno en auge sin regulación.” Universitat Oberta de Catalunya, June 12, 2024. Accessed June 5, 2026. <https://www.uoc.edu/es/news/2024/ninos-influencers-fenomeno-auge-sin-regulacion>.
- Čolaković, Maja, and Marko Bevanda. “Pravna zaštita djece u digitalnom okruženju: djeca influenseri (kidsfluencers).” In *Zbornik radova Pravo između stvaranja i tumačenja*, 205–31. Pravni fakultet u Istočnom Sarajevu, 2023.
- Draškić, Marija. *Porodično pravo i prava deteta: Porodični zakon Srbije: praksa Evropskog suda za ljudska prava u oblasti porodičnog prava*. 11th ed. Beograd: Pravni fakultet Univerziteta, 2020.
- Fatmawati, Fahira, and Kayus Kayowuan Lewoleba. “Kidfluencer: Child Exploitation In Digital Space In Terms Of Child Protection Law.” *Journal of Law, Politic and Humanities* 4, no. 4 (2024): 955–65. <https://doi.org/10.38035/jlph.v4i4.437>.
- Golubović, Dragan V., and Milena S. Galetin. “Pregled prakse Evropskog suda za ljudska prava od značaja za obradu podataka o ličnosti putem video-nadzora.” *Strani pravni život* 68, no. 1 (2024): 61–81. https://doi.org/10.56461/SPZ_24104KJ.
- van der Hof, Simone, Eva Lievens, Ingrida Milkaite, Valerie Verdoodt, Thijs Hannema, and Ton Liefwaard. “The Child’s Right to Protection against Economic Exploitation in the Digital World.” *The International Journal of Children’s Rights* 28, no. 4 (2020): 833–59. <https://doi.org/10.1163/15718182-28040003>.
- Humbert, Franziska. *The Challenge of Child Labour in International Law*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2009.
- International Labour Organization. “What is Child Labour?” Accessed February 6, 2026. <https://libguides.ilo.org/child-labour-en>.
- Jovanović, Vladan. *Zaštita dece od zloupotrebe dečijeg rada – sa fokusom na normativnu uređenost*. Projekat Međunarodne organizacije rada „Angažovanje i podrška na nacionalnom nivou za smanjenje pojave dečijeg rada”. Beograd, 2016.
- Kukla, Timea. “Kidsfluenceri: deca koja zarađuju hiljade evra na društvenim mrežama.” Centar za nestalu i zlostavljanu decu. Accessed January 27, 2026. <https://cnzd.rs/kidfluenseri-deca-koja-zaradjuju-hiljade-evra-na-drustvenim-mrezama/>.
- Kuzmanović, Dobrinka, Zoran Pavlović, Dragan Popadić, and Tijana Milošević. *Korišćenje interneta i digitalnih tehnologija kod dece i mladih u Srbiji: Rezultati istraživanja “Deca Evrope na internetu”*. Beograd: UNICEF, 2019. https://www.unicef.org/serbia/media/12511/file/koriscenje_interneta_i_digitalne_tehnologije_kod_dece_i_mladih_u_Srbiji.pdf.
- Lynn, Amber. “Kidfluencing: The Mental Impacts of Posting on Social Media can have on Children and Parents.” Research paper, The Research Archive of Rising Scholars, October 2, 2023. <https://doi.org/10.58445/rars.537>.

- Martínez Allué, Miriam, and Miguel Ángel Martín Cárda. "Kidfluencers: An Analysis of the Communication Strategies of Child Influencers on YouTube and TikTok and Their Impact on Children's Audience." *Visual Review* 16, no. 5 (2024): 262–69. <https://doi.org/10.62161/revvisual.v16.5301>.
- Martínez-Pastor, Esther, Rodrigo Cetina-Presuel, and Isabel Serrano-Maíllo, "Minors as Content Creators: A Study of the Effectiveness of Advertising Regulation in the United States, the United Kingdom and Spain." *Media Studies* 13, no. 26 (2022): 48–69. <https://doi.org/10.20901/ms.13.26.3>.
- Marzo, Claire. "Influencers, Labour Law and Social Protection: A Comparative Analysis between France and the United Kingdom." In *The Hashtag Hustle: Law and Policy Perspectives on Working in the Influencer Economy*, edited by Taylor Annabell, Christian Fieseler, Catalina Goanta, and Isabelle Wildhaber, 130–48. Cheltenham: Edward Elgar Publishing, 2025.
- Masterson, A. Marina. "When Play Becomes Work: Child Labor Laws in the Era of 'Kidsfluencers.'" *University of Pennsylvania Law Review* 169, no. 2 (2020): 577–607.
- McGinnis, Nila. "They're Just Playing': Why Child Social Media Stars Need Enhanced Coogan Protections to Save them from their Parents." *Missouri Law Review* 87, no. 1 (2022): 1–21. <https://scholarship.law.missouri.edu/mlr/vol87/iss1/10>.
- Miladinović, Slobodan. "Deca na internetu i onlajn društvenim mrežama." In *Internet i društvo: Međunarodni tematski zbornik radova*, edited by Todorović Dragan, Petrović Dalibor, Prija Dragan, 443–57. Beograd – Niš: Srpsko sociološko društvo; Univerzitet u Nišu – Filozofski fakultet; Institut za uporedno pravo, 2014.
- Novaković, Uroš P. "Sharenting – pravo roditelja ili zloupotreba prava deteta." *Sociološki pregled* 59, no. 1 (2025): 346–72. <https://doi.org/10.5937/socpreg59-53981>.
- Permanasari, Ai. "The Urgency of Child Labor Rights Protection as an Influencer." In *Proceedings of the 1st International Conference on Education, Humanities, Health and Agriculture (ICEHHA)*, Ruteng, Flores, Indonesia, June 3–4, 2021, 1–9. <https://doi.org/10.4108/eai.3-6-2021.2310834>.
- Petrović, Dragana. "Privacy and Protection of Personal Data – Criminal Law Aspect." *Strani pravni život* 66, no. 4 (2022): 469–89. https://doi.org/10.56461/SPZ_22407KJ.
- Petrović, Marko. "Dečiji rad u digitalnom okruženju." MA diss., Pravni fakultet Univerziteta u Nišu, 2023.
- Puljić, Zorica. "Djeca na društvenim mrežama." BA diss., Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Filozofski fakultet Sveučilišta u Splitu, University of Split, 2023.
- Rajić Čalić, Jovana. "Posebna radnopravna zaštita osetljivih kategorija zaposlenih – ratio legis, legitimni ciljevi i instrumenti zaštite." PhD diss., Pravni fakultet Univerziteta u Beogradu, 2023.
- Rees, Francis. "Famous at Five: Risk Assessing Digital Child Labour." *Information & Communications Technology Law* 34, no. 3 (2025): 219–40. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13600834.2025.2452699>.
- Reljanović, Mario. "Suppression of Child Labour – Brief Overview of International Standards." *Strani pravni život* 62, no. 4 (2018): 107–24. <https://doi.org/10.5937/spz0-19579>.
- Siewert, Friederike. "New Forms Of Child Labour: A Study On Kidfluencing From A Human Rights Perspective." MA diss., Umea University, 2024.
- Traljić, Nerimana, and Suzana Bubić. *Porodično pravo*. 2nd ed. Sarajevo: Magistrat, 2001.
- Yassin, Malek. "Kidfluencing and Children's Mental Wellbeing?." The Wave Clinic, October 27, 2025. Accessed January 28, 2026. <https://thewaveclinic.com/blog/kidfluencing-how-childrens-rights-and-well-being-are-overlooked/>.

